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ABSTRACT

This document provides a description of the Model United Nations (MUN) program, its educational benefits, an overview of its practice within the United States, and outlines methods for using the MUN as a teaching tool. A total of 72 MUNs involving high school and college students was reported in 1977-78. As a simulation, the MUN provides replication of real life social processes and involves activities of decision making, allocation of resources, planning, and negotiation. Students role play delegates from member states of the United Nations. Benefits to students include heightened interest and motivation, an opportunity to apply and test knowledge gained from reading, a greater understanding of problems faced by decision makers, and an understanding of real world phenomena through a more simple microcosm. Three stages comprise MUN activities: preparation, deliberation, and decision. The first stage consists of research and involves developing country profiles, analyzing problems, writing position papers, formulating resolutions, planning, and strategy. The second stage, deliberation, involves agenda setting, formulating alternatives to proposals, and legitimation, or winning support for resolutions. The third stage, decision, calls for either tabling the resolution or voting on it. Tables which rate student delegate responses to prerequisites for peace are included. (KC)

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USING THE MODEL UNITED NATIONS AS A TEACHING TOOL

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Paper prepared for the Second Annual National Conference on the Third World, Omaha, Nebraska, Nov. 16-18, 1978.

PART 1 - NATIONAL MUN PROGRAMS

Model United Nations programs nationally are experiencing a period of growth. The United Nations Association's Model U.N. Department headed by John Lange estimated that over 30,000 high school and college students took part in MUN conferences in 1977-78 (Lange, 1978). In a later publication, approximately 40,000 students are estimated to be involved in MUN activities for 1978-79 (UNA, 1978a).

MUN programs involve high school students, college students, or a combination of high school and college students. A total of 72 MUNs were reported for 1977-78 (UNA, 1978b). According to the available data, 35 conferences were attended by high school students, 13 by college students, and five by both high school and college students. Another 19 conferences failed to specify who participated. (Table 1).

The number of students participating regardless of whether high school or college is portrayed in Table 2. Data were available for 49 conferences. Over half were attended by 400 or fewer students, while 17 had more than 400 participants. The number of delegations represented at MUNs is described in Table 3. Data were available for 46 conferences. The vast majority of conferences attract between 1 and 50 delegations or between 51 and 100 delegations. Several approach the universality of the United Nations with 150 members states, including the Kansas State High School MUN (KSHSMUN).

Lange compared MUN participation with total number of people working at U.N. Headquarters in New York and estimates that five times as many students are involved in simulations around the country as there are people at the international organization (Lange, 1978). Simulations involved as few as 15 people and as many as 1,700 who gather at the National Model United Nations conferences in New York each spring. Both high schools and colleges have

individual national meetings in New York. Each MUN is locally organized and independent of all others, Lange observed (Lange, 1978).

Model Congresses have been held for over 100 years and a model League of Nations was staged in 1923 (Lange, 1978). ContemporaryMUNs last from one to five days and may include a wide mix of U.N. organs and other related meetings and agencies, although the General Assembly and Security Council are the most common formats included by most conferences. Some MUNs involve only plenary debates while others develop elaborate bloc meetings and committee deliberations.

"The key to a MUN is role-playing with students 'representing' the various member states of the United Nations in a series of meetings," (Lange, 1978) emphasized. The complexity of the U.N. membership means that 150 nations which are presently members may have representation in the General Assembly, while other organs reflect proportionate memberships: Security Council includes 15 members and the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) has 54 members. Various observer groups, such as the PLO and SWAPO, also may attend.

TABLE 1
Types of MUN Programs, 1977-78

	number	percentage
high school only	35	48.6
college only	13	18.1
combined	5	6.9
missing data	19	26.4
Total	72	100.0

Source: UNA, 1978b.

TABLE 2
Students Participating in UMNs, 1977-78

size in students	number	percentage
0-200	13	26.5
201-400	19	38.8
401-600	5	10.2
601-800	4	8.2
801 or more	8	16.3
Total	49	100.0

Source: UNA, 1978b.

TABLE 3
Delegations Represented at MUNs, 1977-78

number of delegations	number	percentage
0-25	7	15.2
26-50	13	28.2
51-75	9	19.6
76-100	12	26.1
101-125	1	2.2
126-150	3	6.5
150 or more	1	2.2
Total	46	100.0

Source: UNA, 1978b.

PART 2 - THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

There is a paucity of literature which describes and explains MUNs. Most of the documentation is produced by the staffs of the various programs

and is primarily intended for the participants. However, MUNs comprise one class of role-playing exercises which are designated as simulations. For a variety of reasons the literature which describes and explains simulations did not document MUNs. Since this writer postulates that MUNs are one class of simulations, reference to that literature will be incorporated in this paper as the theoretical background of MUNs is developed.

> Simulation is an operating representation of central features of reality (Guetzkow, 1963).

> A simualtion is a game-like classroom exercise focused on some aspect of human affairs, such as politics, international affairs, or business (Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1966).

In the case of MUNs, like many games, there are (1) rules governing procedures of the exercise; (2) individuals and teams representing certian real life groups; and (3) interactive situations involving competition and cooperation at various times between individuals and/or teams.

All simulations consist of activities in which participants take part, among which the most common are decision making, allocation of individual and team "resources", planning, and negotiation (Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1966). In the case of MUNs, participants carry out these activities by holding meetings, writing and reading written communications, building majority coalitions through bargaining and compromise, and supporting various alternatives in the form of resolutions.

Simulations are built around a theoretical model. The model makes it possible for the participants to work within a simplified version of reality. Although simulations involve role-playing, through their replication of real life social processes, they provide experimental learning of a realistic nature (Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1966). In the case of MUNs, their relationship to model is of critical importance. MUNs may be treated

as a special class of simulations in as much as they are based upon structures which are isomorphic to real world phenomena, i.e., the United Nations organs. Furthermore, the rules of procedure approximate closely those of the United Nations; individuals portray diplomatic representatives of real world countries; teams are comprised of individuals within country delegations or country delegations within geographical and/or cultural blocs.

Only with regard to interactive situations does the isomorphism begin to break down. Because high school students are used as decision makers, they bring their personal characteristics into the model and their own implicit theories of the way in which nations should behave. An effort to appraise these personal predispositions was undertaken during the 12th Annual KSHSMUN. A pre-test was administered and the results are discussed in Part 5. Some of these predispositions are displaced by the factual knowledge that students gain while doing research about the country they will represent. The model does allow for creativity and individual initiative, rather than requiring an exact replication of real world behavior which characterizes a particular country. Herein lies the difference between mock and model sessions. In the former students are required not to deviate from the policy positions of a particular country, while in the latter a certain latitude is permitted. However, a credentials challenge may be issued by other delegations if it is felt that the variation in behavior threatens the simulation.

PART 3 -- EDUCATIONAL USES

Users of simulations for educational purposes report a number of proclaimed benefits. Although the educational benefits of simulation have not been rigorously measured, participants and educators have offered numerous testimonials. A survey of the value of simulations is described below since

the same type of responses about MUNs have been made by both students and teachers in written evaluations about the KSHSMUN.

> 1. It is reported that simulation heightens the interest and motivation of students in several ways. First, the activity of most simulations appears to be more enjoyable than customary kinds of learning. Second, it is difficult in most cases for students to avoid extensive involvement in the simulation. Third, simulation participants have a mutually shared experience which stimulates discussion with fellow-students outside of class far more than normal course work (Alger, 1963).

Several advisors who bring students to the KSHSMUN report that involvement in MUN increases student's enthusiasm for learning, for socal science courses, and for them personally. In many cases students spend two months preparing for the one day assembly at Emporia State. Because many students have never attended a session previously, mini-simulations are held in order to heighten interest and stimulate interaction with fellow students. According to written records of the KSHSMUN, most high school students who attend as underclassmen return to other sessions of the KSHSMUN in later years. In fact, the demand by past participants has been so great that last year a spring Model Security Council was implemented as well as a one week summer MUN Workshop. The summer program will be expanded to two weeks for 1979. Furthermore, students who have participated in high school MUNs comprise the bulk of the college staff that helps run the KSHSMUN.

> 2. It is claimed that simulation offers an opportunity for applying and testing knowledge gained from reading in connection with the course and from other sources as well (Alger, 1963).

Teachers who participate in the KSHSMUN report that students' understanding of ideas and concepts appears to be increased. The advisors often expressed surprise while watching their students' performance during the annual assembly when it became apparent that an integration of knowledge was responsible for a specific strategy or speech that went beyond anything taught in class.

Spontaneous speeches often manifest a form of creative thinking that draws together, organizes and applies knowledge gained from books, from other teachers, and from fellow students.

Students also have the opportunity to apply skills such as decision making, resources allocation, communication, persuasion, influence resisting. While much social science literature presents these concepts in the abstract, many students never have the opportunity to translate the skills into practice. MUN provides that chance if students take advantage of it. Even if students do not become actively involved in applying these skills, they have an opportunity to observe these processes being implemented by other students within the context of MUN.

> 3. There are numerous ways in which simulation experience is reported to give participants greater understanding of the world as seen and experienced by the decision maker. First, the participant is part of a group involved in making decisions. Second, experience is gained in actually making decisions about the problems under study rather than simply evaluating the decisions of others. Third, it is also claimed that simulation experience offers insights into aspects of the decision maker's predicament that are assumed to be peculiar to the institutions being simulated (Alger, 1963).

Since students must work within teams (either delegations or blocs), they experience the ways in which decisions are influenced by group relationships and by the way in which roles are defined within the group. Advisors point out that inter-personal relationships must be dealt with successfully if the group is to be cohesive and compete as a team. Many groups disintegrate because students cannot deal with one another successfully and reorganization of delegations must take place.

Students often gain empathy for real life decision makers, teachers report. Often they come to realize that decision making is more complicated than they realized. The importance of procedural questions as contrasted

to substantive questions is dramatized by the difficulty in building consensus within MUN bodies when some people seem determined to block every attempt with points of order or other procedural delays. Teachers report that enhancement of personal growth often results from MUN experience. Students gain a better sense of how they appear to others when working in decision contexts. They discover personal skills, weaknesses that were unconceived, and ways of expressing anger and affection without adversely affecting interpersonal relations.

4. Most simulations provide a minature world that is easier for the participant to comprehend as a whole than are the real institutions themselves (Alger, 1963).

Students must learn the specific details of the model behind the simulation in order to be successful delegates. Simulation is used to enhance the knowledge of students about roles they may never assume themselves or about institutions they may never serve. To the extent that MUNs lead students to inquiry about real world phenomena in order to participate more effectively in simulations, then two objectives are served. First, training students to perform actual roles is based on two processes. One involves preparation and study of how delegates to the United Nations perform their duties in the context of conference diplomacy. The other involves the actual experience of playing a role. The success of the second learning experience depends upon the first. Students learn about theory and practice in this manner. The second objective is to enhance the knowledge of students about some phenomena in which they may never actually participate. Simulation is the one means of teaching about the United Nations in which students assume the roles of delegates and experience the dynamics of decision making which characterize that international organization.

Evaluations of students taking part in the KSHSMUN parallels the responses of college students who took part in the Inter-Nation Simulation at Northwestern

University during the 1960s. Six categories of response were used to summarize their experiences and four of the categories subsume the opinions of participants in the KSHSMUN:

1. Provides vividness and understanding beyond what one gets from a textbook.
2. Gives one a realization of the complexities and/or the lack of simple solutions to international problems.
3. (not applicable)
4. Develops better understanding of the problems and goals of nations not like the United States
5. Experience in decision making enables one to better understand the problems of the decision maker.
6. (not applicable) (Alger, 1963)

TABLE 4
Using the Model United Nations as a Teaching Tool

Stages	Activities	Target
(1) Preparation	Researching Issue Area	Self-Education
	(a) developing country profiles	
	(b) analyzing problems	
	(c) writing position papers	
	(d) formulating resolutions	
	(e) planning strategy	
(2) Deliberation	Setting Agenda	Education of Others at Meeting and Self-Education
	Formulating Alternatives	
	(a) caucusing and planning	
	(b) negotiating changes	
	(c) amending resolutions	
	Legitimating Proposals	
	(a) presenting policy statements	
	(b) engaging in debate	
	(c) following rules of procedure	
	(d) amending resolutions	
(3) Decision	Tabling Resolutions	Education of Others Outside Meeting
	Voting On Resolutions	
	(a) announcing consensus	
	(b) portraying disagreement	
	(c) remaining neutral	

PART 4 - MUN AS TEACHING TOOL

Although little theoretical work which addresses simulations specifically mentions MUNs, a number of insights provided by that literature was applicable to an explanation of the program as demonstrated in the last section. Likewise, although the literature related to decision making does not deal explicitly with MUNs, several studies do provide a descriptive framework which allows an explication of MUN dynamics. In particular, the work of Jones (1977) and Anderson (1978) provides the intellectual basis upon which Table 4 and subsequent discussion builds a description of MUNs programs.

This writer will focus upon three stages of MUNs -- preparation, deliberation, and decision. Each will be examined in terms of activities, many suggested by the work of Jones (1977) and Anderson (1978). However, the responsibility for the development of this particular theoretical framework is solely that of this writer. Any distortions, shortcomings, or oversimplifications may be attributed to this writer's attempt to adapt work applicable to other areas to the area of MUNs.

1. Preparation

It was earlier hypothesized that a successful educational experience for students was predicated upon preparation. Thus, the first stage of using the MUNs as a teaching tool is perhaps the most important. Researching an issue area involves at least five crucial activities which contribute to the self-education of the student (Table 4).

a. Developing Country Profiles

Researching an issue area may be treated as the functional equivalent of what Jones identified as problem formation. Before action can be taken by some institution to solve a perceived problem, a specification of the problem

and identification of like minded actors must be accomplished (Jones, 1977). In much the same manner, the activities associated with MUN programs should accomplish the same objectives.

Since students will represent a particular real world country or other groups, such as the PLO or SWAPO, the first step in the research process should be the development of a country profile. This document provides a basic overview of a nation's history, its political, social, cultural and economic characteristics, and its foreign policy positions. Special attention is given to a country's documented statements and votes on various issues at the United Nations. The United Nations Chronicles and Yearbooks provide much of the data.

b. Analyzing Problems

The Secretariat of the MUNs often announces a number of topics to be debated during the annual conferences. These topic lists identify problems which may be considered and therefore define the subject matter which students must analyze. For the 1978 KSHSMUN, for example, the General Assembly topics were disamament and human rights. Research attention on the part of participants could be focused on these issues and the various problems associated with them could be analyzed in detail, provided research was undertaken. Preliminary documentation and bibliographies were prepared by the KSHSMUN staff on these two issues and made available in advisor and delegate handbooks. Further research was left up to the individual delegates.

c. Writing Position Papers

The next task of research involves identifying a particular country's official position in regard to problems associated with issue areas such as disarmament or human rights. The UN Chronicles and Yearbooks plus documentation from the various embassies are useful in this regard. New York Times reports and articles in other news media often give such information. Preparing

country position papers on the issues and related problems to be debated has the advantage of consolidating a large amount of information into a relatively brief document which can be consultated during the conference, especially if unexpected events occur.

d. Formulating Resolutions

The fourth activity allows students to formulate proposed solutions to various global, regional, or local problems. Drafting resolutions in order to offer a formulation for solving a particular problem is based upon both historical understanding of that situation and a vision of the future. Resolutions are much like bills. However, resolutions do not become law upon adoption like bills. Resolutions are divided into two parts; preambilatory clauses and actuating clauses. The former defines the problem and places it in context of past attempts to solve it, while the latter specifies what future action should be taken or not taken in order to solve a problem.

e. Planning Strategy

Strategy is an important element in preparing for MUN conferences. Planning how to advance one's ideas, how to win support for proposals, and which countries might have similar policy positions requires further research. Planning strategy is probably the most frequently ignored activity in preparing for MUNs. Many students fail to realize, for instance, how the Group of 77 organizes many African, Asian and Latin American countries into a working bloc with a broader base of support than is found in the traditional geographical and cultural blocs which help structure caucusing at the KSHSMUN. Inter-regional cooperation is seldom realized during the conference in the General Assembly.

Another aspect of strategy is learning parliamentary procedure in order to operate effectively during MUN conferences. Although many high school students have participated in debate and/or learned Roberts Rules of Order, many others have no such background. The frustration of inadequate preperation is often apparent during the KSHSMUN when a student has something to say, but is either unable to gain recognition from the presiding officer to speak or is interrupted during a speech because of various motions being made by other delegates.

Adequate training in both the theory and practice of parliamentary procedure prepares students to cope with the rules of the game as well as those who manipulate the rules, such as the delegate who raises "points of order" in order to "score" points rather than for substantive reasons. Faculty Advisor and Delegate Handbooks specify the KSHSMUN rules of procedure. These handbooks are distributed well in advance of the annual assembly.

Role playing and mock sessions are used by faculty advisors to teach students about the application of the rules. Videotapes are provided by the Secretariat of the KSHSMUN for participating schools to use. These tapes portray past meetings of various MUN bodies and as such provide a videoimage of how rules of procedure have been utilized. In lieu of actual experience in MUN, the combination of classroom exercises and media presentations helps amplify and illustrate the dynamics of the rules.

Several schools stage joint sessions in order to practice using rules of procedure. Others participate in additional conferences which provide the actual experience.

2. Deliberation

The functional activities--setting agenda, formulating alternatives and legitimating proposals--do not represent sequential steps in deliberation, although they may occur in that order. Because delegates control their own meetings, the mix and ordering of activities is highly variable. For the sake of simplicity, the activities will be considered separately and sequentially (Table 4).

Agenda Setting

Resolutions are submitted in advance and packets of resolutions are prepared for the various organs. Agenda setting basically involves two activities--deciding in which order to deal with issues, i.e., disarmament first, then human rights or visa versa; and choosing which resolutions will be debated first, second, third, etc. within the issue areas. Such deliberations take place during bloc meetings, committee meetings, and plenary sessions.

Formulating Alternatives

Although a variety of resolutions are submitted in advance of the conference, most of them will never be considered in the plenary sessions. In the 1978 KSHSMUN, for instance, over 70 General Assembly resolutions were submitted. Only three were debated on the floor of the General Assembly and none was passed. An explication of what happens during this stage of deliberation will be undertaken because it is the opinion of this writer that this process is the weakest link in the MUN program at Emporia State, and possibly other MUNs as well.

a. Caucusing and Planning

No committees operate at the KSHSMUN. Caucusing and planning are suppose to take place in bloc meetings. However, since these blocs convene only for the first 45 minutes of the conference and most students fail to understand

the importance of the meetings or to operate effectively in them, little is accomplished. A leader is usually elected. Sometimes agreement is reached regarding which resolutions to support in plenary sessions, but most often no agreement is developed in the blocs--Western, Soviet, African, Asian, Latin American, Arab or Non-Aligned.

b. Negotiating Changes

No effort at building consensus is evident at bloc meetings. Delegates operate in an adversary atmosphere and selfishly argue in favor of their own country's resolution or else remain quiet. Third party mediators rarely emerge. Similarities among many resolutions are usually ignored. Personal predisposition, time and bloc structure mitigate against negotiated changes. Students have no willingness to compromise; 45 minutes provides too short a time to build consensus; blocs are too large to facilitate fruitful interaction among delegates.

One possible solution would be the institution of working groups within blocs and of a committee structure. Whereas blocs range in size from 30 to 70 delegates, dividing each bloc into five working groups would create smaller groups of 6 to 12 delegates to consider resolutions. Working groups from the various blocs would then meet in committees that correspond to areas of specialized concern, such as political and security affairs (First Committee), special political affairs (Special Committee), economic affairs (Second Committee), social affairs (Third Committee), and humanitarian affairs (Fourth Committee). A functional arrangement of this nature might operate during the morning of the conference, then committees would report resolutions to the plenary in the afternoon.

c. Amending Resolutions

No attempt to amend resolutions has been made in bloc meetings, although nothing in the rules of procedure would prevent it. Delegates to the KSHSMUN

might use such a strategy to build consensus by incorporating friendly amendments into resolutions before they are presented to the plenary. Likewise, if a committee structure is used in future KSHSMUNs, then amending resolutions in committee may help develop wider support for the proposal prior to its consideration in the plenary. Likewise, unacceptable resolutions that might never reach the floor might be amended in such a way so as to become highly acceptable to delegates. Resolutions co-sponsored by several nations and for that matter by many nations have an advantage over those support initially by only its author. Such co-sponsored resolutions rarely are introduced at the KSHSMUN.

Legitimating Porposals

The process of winning support for resolutions is defined as legitimation. It involves the building of a majority coalition. Within the General Assembly during the 1978 KSHSMUN, no resolutions were passed. None of the three resolutions considered receive the necessary 72 out of 142 votes form the members present. In the other organs--the Security Council, ECOSOC, and FAO Council--a number of resolutions were passed, although in each instance fewer delegates comprised the bodies than serve in the General Assembly. A majority in ECOSOC was 28 out of 54 and in FAO Council it was 34 out of 67 . The Security Council presents a special problem since its rules of procedure require the concurrence of the five permanent members (U.S., U.S.S.R., P.R.C., France and Britain) for substantive matters to be approved. A negative vote on their part voids a majority vote of 8 out of 15.

a. Presenting Policy Statements

Each country is permitted time to give an opening speech when it introduces a resolution. Such policy statements present a brief explanation of why the resolution should be adopted. In the Security Council where the membership permits, each country is afforded opportunity to make a policy statement when resolutions are introduced.

One proposed change for the KSHSMUN would be running committee meetings and the plenary sessions of the General Assembly concurrently. During the morning session of the General Assembly this procedure would permit each country to present a general policy statement prior to the consideration of resolutions during the afternoon. This practice replicates the United Nations procedure of allowing all members of the General Assembly to make such statements at the opening of the annual session. More delegates in the plenary would have an opportunity to address the assembly since the present arrangement often means that many delegates, although they have prepared speeches, never have an opportunity to give them.

b. Engaging in Debate

Debate serves many purposes--to agrue why a particular resolution should or should not be adopted; to convince delegates to change their votes or not to change their votes; to pursuade delegates how they should vote if they are undecided; to explain why a country votes the way it does; to delay the proceedings. Since many debaters participate in the KSHSMUN, debate also serves as a vehicle for winning points or so it is believed by these students. In fact, debaters tend to dominate the speakers' list, according to the high school advisors.

c. Following Rules of Procedure

Most rules are adapted from those of the United Nations. They prescribe guidelines to insure an orderly conference. Each organ has a parliamentarian who is a member of the Secretariat staff. This college student assists the presiding officer who also is a member of the Secretariat staff, as is the Secretary of each body. A Secretary-General coordinates the activities and supervises the staff. This student is usually in a graduate program. These college students apply the rules of procedure. All delegations are provided

Handbooks which specify the rules for the various bodies. High School advisors also receive Handbooks which list the rules.

Although the rules are designed to insure the orderly proceedings of the conference, they often impede the work of various bodies. The most frequent case involves procedural questions raised by students who wish to delay or subvert the normal affairs of the day. The other case occurs when the presiding officer misapplies or misinterprets a rule. The former case is dealt with by the Secretariat staff while the latter may be raised by the delegates themselves in the form of appealing the ruling of the chair.

d. Amending Resolutions

This topic was considered in the pervious discussion about formulating alternatives. Most of the activity in the KSHSMUN plenaries is directed at amending resolutions. As many as 10 or 12 changes are often proposed after a resolution is introduced. Especially in the General Assembly, the procedure of amending is a time consuming task. It is the principal reason why only three resolutions were considered at the 1978 KSHSMUN. Other organs, partly because of the smaller sizes, expedite the handling of resolutions through two mechanisms. First, recesses provide an opportunity for delegates to coordinate and often combine proposed changes into fewer amendments. Second, fewer participants mean that fewer amendments may be offered. This is usually the case in Security Council and ECOSOC. Bloc meetings, even when called during recesses in the General Assembly, rarely function in the manner described above for Security Council and ECOSOC. Some of the reasons were enumerated earlier, as were suggestions for improving the procedure in the General Assembly (see Formulating Alternatives.)

3. Decision

In regard to resolutions being considered by the different plenaries, two outcomes are possible--either tabling the resolution or voting in it. Tabling is conceived as a different outcome in as much as a tabled resolution cannot be reconsidered at that session of the KSHSMUN. Tabling is an effective way of getting something off the agenda. Voting, on the other hand, represents another type of outcome. Rather than indefinitely postponing a decision, voting represents a final stage in the legitimation process. Delegates may vote for, against, or abstain on the issue (as well as be absent from voting). Those voting for a resolution announce their consensus favoring the proposal. If this consensus represents a majority, then the coalition successfully adopts the resolution.

Those voting against a resolution portray the extent of disagreement with regard to the propriety of the proposal. If this disagreement represents a majority of delegates, then the coalition defeats the resolution. Remaining neutral (or being absent) is similar to tabling in the sense that delegates do not wish to publically take a position. However, this strategy is often used to pass in order of voting in order to assess the distribution of ballots. Members of the Security Council, expecially the permanent members, who do not wish to use the veto unless absolutely necessary, often will abstain (or pass) and then either cast a positive or negative vote, if necessary, after the first tally is complete.

TABLE 5
Prerequisites for Peace

		responses in percent					
		Yes	No	DK[1]	AR[2]	Rank	CR[3]
1.	more religions	57	20	23	.49	10	23
2.	less aggressive individuals	36	42	22	-.07	20	11
3.	peace in family, school, work	95	3	2	.93	2	6
4.	abolish colonialism	34	30	35	.07	14	10
5.	abolish hunger & poverty	94	2	4	.96	1	1
6.	free choice of government	83	10	6	.79	4	5
7.	non-intervention	31	50	19	-.23	21	8
8.	nations more similar	40	39	22	.01	17	13
9.	private ownership	40	40	19	-.01	18	24
10.	technical assistance	71	16	13	.64	6	7
11.	public ownership	22	54	23	-.41	22	18
12.	reduce rich-poor gap	63	21	15	.50	9	4
13.	private and public ownership	62	17	21	.55	7	15
14.	military alliances	39	35	27	.06	15	18
15.	general & complete disarmament	52	27	21	.32	13	9
16.	withdraw from military alliances	21	51	29	-.43	23	21
17.	keep national armies	70	14	17	.67	5	20
18.	countries self-sufficient	22	65	14	-.49	24	25
19.	increased interaction	61	19	21	.53	8	2
20.	poor countries, unite!	36	33	30	.05	16	16
21.	small countries, unite!	57	21	23	.45	12	14
22.	improve United Nations	76	5	19	.87	3	3
23.	world language	38	39	22	-.02	19	18
24.	international peace keeping	56	21	24	.47	11	12
25.	world government	15	58	27	-.60	25	22

1-don't know 2-acceptance ratio 3-cross-national rank

PART 5 - ATTITUDES OF MUN PARTICIPANTS

A simple cross-sectional survey was administered to the high school students prior to the 1978 KSHSMUN. Although a comparative study or a before-after quasi-experimental design would have been preferred, time and limited financial resources prevented its application in this instance. This project was basically a purposive study designed to gain data from MUN participants about attitudes regarding peace. The survey was prepared by Johann Galtung, a Swedish sociologist. Results from a number of countries are available so that elementary comparisons between American students and foreign nationals may be made.

As Table 5 reveals, data were used to compute five measures--percent responding "yes," percent responding "no," percent responding "don't know," the acceptance ratio (AR), the comparative rank of the AR. The CR or cross-national rank is a measure computed from Galtung's studies of eight countries. It represents the average rank of acceptance ratios for people of other nationalities, thus affording a reference for comparison with the AR of American students who attended the KSHSMUN.

The acceptance ratio is a statistic which demonstrates the relative acceptablity of the various statements (1-25). It is computed according to the following formula:

$$AR = \frac{Yes-No}{Yes+No}$$

The range of scores is from +1.0 (every respondent accepting the statement) to -1.0 (every respondent rejecting the statement). Those not answering either yes or no are not considered by the statistic.

Inspection of the rank orderings will identify the range of statements receiving the most favorable responses to the least favorable. For instance, statement 5 ranked first in this study and in the opinion of non-Americans according to the CR. Both ranked "abolish hunger and poverty" as "1." The

AR among KSHSMUN participants was .96 out of a possible 1.0. There appears to be widespread agreement that this objective might create preconditions for peace in the world. The fact that both the FAO Council and ECOSOC passed resolutions addressing this issue at the 1978 KSHSMUN demonstrates the linkage between students' attitudes and positions taken in regard to resolutions, it might be argued.

On the other hand, the question of disarmament produced much disagreement in the 1978 KSHSMUN General Assembly. Although more than 30 resolutions were prepared and debated, none was passed. Statements 14,15,16,17 tapped student's attitudes. Although "general and complete disarmament" received an AR of .32, it ranked only 13th in terms of favorable responses. Twelve other statements were seen as more important by students. Although "military alliances" were not viewed as a satisfactory means to achieve peace (AR=.06), students rejected the notion to "withdraw from military alliances' (AR=-.43). More significant in terms of value conflict over disarmament which was supported (AR=.32), a higher ratio of students believed that countries should "keep national armies" (AR=.67). This ranked as the fifth most important statement for students.

Since the KSHSMUN simulates the United Nations, it is not surprising to find a strong measure of support to "improve United Nations" (AR=.87). It should be pointed out that a question about the U.S. withdrawing from the U.N. was not raised by Galtung and hence not included in this survey. In terms of activities which students might view as appropriate for the United Nations to undertake to encourage peace, the following received some support:

1. "abolish hunger and poverty" (AR=.96)
2. provide "technical assistance" (AR=.64)
3. "reduce righ-poor gap" (AR=.50)
4. "international peacekeeping" (AR=.47)

The remaining statements received less positive support.

It should be pointed out that students reject the idea of "world government" (AR=-.60) as the least desirable. It ranked 25th out of 25 statements.

PART 6 - CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to stimulate discussion about MUN programming. It represents a first effort at synthesizing divergent ideas about simulations, decision making and the actual conduct of one Model United Nations. It is not the intention of this writer to offer such a conclusion as an excuse, but rather as an invitation for dialogue. The academic literature gives very little assistance where MUNs are concerned. This writer is not aware of any studies which treat the topic systematically. In effect, this paper may represent the beginning of such an endeavor.

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